GENERATIVE REPRESENTATIONAL INSTRUCTION TUNING

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ABSTRACT

All text-based language problems can be reduced to either generation or embedding. Current models only perform well at one or the other. We introduce generative representational instruction tuning (GRIT) whereby a large language model is trained to handle both generative and embedding tasks by distinguishing between them through instructions. Compared to other open models, our resulting GRITLM 7B is among the top models on the Massive Text Embedding Benchmark (MTEB) and outperforms various models up to its size on a range of generative tasks. By scaling up further, GRITLM 8X7B achieves even stronger generative performance while still being among the best embedding models. Notably, we find that GRIT matches training on only generative or embedding data, thus we can unify both at no performance loss. Among other benefits, the unification via GRIT speeds up Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) by >60% for long documents, by no longer requiring separate retrieval and generation models. Models, code, etc. will be made freely available.

Figure 1: Performance of various models on text representation (embedding) and generation tasks. GRITLM is the first model to perform strongly at both types of tasks simultaneously.

1 INTRODUCTION

 Creating a single general model that performs well at a wide range of tasks has been a long-standing goal of the field of artificial intelligence [\(Kaiser et al.,](#page-15-0) [2017;](#page-15-0) [Jaegle et al.,](#page-15-1) [2021;](#page-15-1) [Cho et al.,](#page-11-0) [2021;](#page-11-0) [Reed et al.,](#page-19-0) [2022;](#page-19-0) [Singh et al.,](#page-19-1) [2022\)](#page-19-1). Recently, large language models (LLMs) have emerged as a

Figure 2: **GRIT.** The same model handles both text representation and generation tasks based on a given instruction. For representation tasks, instructions ideally contain target domain , intent , and unit [\(Asai et al.,](#page-10-0) [2022\)](#page-10-0). The representation is a numeric tensor, while the generative output is text.

promising direction for a single multi-task model [\(Radford et al.,](#page-18-0) [2019;](#page-18-0) [Brown et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1). Prior work has argued that all text-based language problems can be reduced to generation and thus handled by a single LLM [\(Raffel et al.,](#page-18-1) [2023;](#page-18-1) [Du et al.,](#page-12-0) [2021\)](#page-12-0).

079 080 081 082 083 084 085 086 087 088 However, tasks that use embeddings, such as clustering or retrieval [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0), have largely been ignored from this perspective. Today, text embeddings power many real-world applications ranging from search engines to user-facing chatbots [\(Huang et al.,](#page-15-2) [2020;](#page-15-2) [Su et al.,](#page-19-2) [2017\)](#page-19-2). While integrating text embeddings into the generative paradigm is possible by generating a sequence of numbers to form the embedding tensor, it becomes impractical due to the high dimensionality and precision requirements of embeddings. Thus, it is more common and much easier to use the hidden state of the model as the embedding representation, which is already a numeric tensor [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022;](#page-17-1) [Wang & Kuo,](#page-20-0) [2020;](#page-20-0) [Morris et al.,](#page-17-2) [2023\)](#page-17-2). However, for current generative models this leads to poor performance. For example, while the T5 model [\(Raffel et al.,](#page-18-1) [2023;](#page-18-1) [Sanh et al.,](#page-19-3) [2022\)](#page-19-3) can handle any generative task in a sequence-to-sequence fashion, it requires finetuning to make its hidden state useful for text embedding [\(Ni et al.,](#page-18-2) [2021a](#page-18-2)[;b\)](#page-18-3) during which it loses its generative capabilities.

089 090 091 092 093 094 095 096 097 098 099 100 101 102 103 We introduce GRIT (generative representational instruction tuning) which unifies embedding and generative tasks, leading to a model that excels at both tasks as shown in [Figure 1.](#page-0-0) [Figure 2](#page-1-0) depicts how GRIT combines two previously disjoint training paradigms: (1) *Generative instruction tuning*, whereby the model is trained to respond to instructions by generating an answer [\(Wei et al.,](#page-21-0) [2022;](#page-21-0) [Sanh et al.,](#page-19-3) [2022\)](#page-19-3); and (2) *Representational instruction tuning*, whereby the model is trained to represent a provided input according to an instruction [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023;](#page-19-4) [Asai et al.,](#page-10-0) [2022\)](#page-10-0). Via the instructions and separate loss functions the model learns to differentiate the two streams. We test our approach on models with up to 47B parameters. This unification via GRIT leads to three advantages: a) Performance: Our unified model matches the performance of embedding-only and generative-only variants, even outperforming them on some tasks. At 7B parameters, GRITLM is among the best models on the Massive Text Embedding Benchmark [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0) and at the same time outperforms some larger models on generative tasks, such as Llama 2 70B. By scaling further, GRITLM 8X7B achieves even stronger generative performance, while only using 13B parameters at inference due to its MoE architecture [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-15-3) [2024\)](#page-15-3). Further, as our models use sliding window attention [\(Child et al.,](#page-11-1) [2019;](#page-11-1) [Beltagy et al.,](#page-10-2) [2020\)](#page-10-2) they can handle generative and embedding inputs of arbitrary length.

104 105 106 107 b) Efficiency: Generative and embedding models are commonly used together to make up for each other's deficiencies [\(Guu et al.,](#page-14-0) [2020;](#page-14-0) [Lewis et al.,](#page-16-0) [2021a\)](#page-16-0). One such scenario is Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) [\(Lewis et al.,](#page-16-0) [2021a\)](#page-16-0), where an embedding model is used to retrieve context that is provided to the generative model to answer a user query. This requires passing the user query and the context into both the generative and the embedding model for a total of four forward passes. With **108 109 110** GRITLM, the embedding and generative model are equivalent, allowing us to cache computations and halve the necessary number of forward passes. We find that this can lead to $>60\%$ faster RAG at inference with long documents.

111 112 113 c) Simplicity: Currently, API providers such as OpenAI provide separate generative and embedding endpoints. This requires separate load balancing, additional storage, and more complex serving software. A single model that handles both use cases significantly simplifies infrastructure needs.

114 115 116 117 118 119 120 Compared to generative instruction tuning, the main downside of GRIT is that it requires more finetuning compute due to training with two objectives. However, finetuning is generally cheap compared to pretraining, thus we think the benefits vastly outstrip this problem. Further, when considering training a separate generative and embedding model from scratch (e.g. for RAG), GritLM is generally cheaper when incorporating the pretraining compute, as there is only one pretraining and finetuning for GritLM, not separate ones for both a generative and an embedding model. Thus we recommend practitioners building instruction-following language models to adopt GRIT.

121 122 123 124 125 126 Alongside GRIT, we introduce novel performance improvements for embedding models including the use of bidirectional attention with mean pooling for LLM embeddings and ensuring that in-batch negatives stem from the same dataset rather than any dataset, as well as novelties for generative models including mixing sample- and token-level loss aggregation. We ablate these in detail in [Appendix A.](#page-24-0) We also put forth new ways to reduce memory requirements during training of embedding models, which we elaborate in [Appendix K.](#page-38-0)

2 GRIT

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147 148 149 150 151 Figure 3: GRITLM architecture and format. *Left:* GRITLM uses bidirectional attention over the input for embedding tasks. Mean pooling is applied over the final hidden state to yield the final representation. *Right:* GRITLM uses causal attention over the input for generative tasks. A language modeling head on top of the hidden states predicts the next tokens. The format supports conversations with multiple turns (indicated with "...").

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153 154 155 156 157 GRIT unifies representational instruction tuning [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023;](#page-19-4) [Asai et al.,](#page-10-0) [2022;](#page-10-0) [Wang et al.,](#page-20-1) [2024\)](#page-20-1) and generative instruction tuning [\(Wei et al.,](#page-21-0) [2022;](#page-21-0) [Sanh et al.,](#page-19-3) [2022;](#page-19-3) [Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-3) [2023d\)](#page-17-3) into a single model. We finetune a pretrained LLM [\(Brown et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1) with embedding and generative instruction data in a consistent format [\(Figure 3\)](#page-2-0). For embedding data, we follow prior work and use a contrastive objective with in-batch negatives [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-2) [2020;](#page-11-2) [Gao et al.,](#page-14-1) [2022\)](#page-14-1):

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\text{Rep}} = -\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \log \frac{\exp(\tau \cdot \sigma(f_{\theta}(q^{(i)}), f_{\theta}(d^{(i)})))}{\sum_{j=1}^{M} \exp(\tau \cdot \sigma(f_{\theta}(q^{(i)}), f_{\theta}(d^{(j)})))}
$$
(1)

158 159 160

161 where f is GRITLM parametrized by the model θ , τ is a temperature hyperparameter and σ corresponds to pooling applied to each output followed by cosine similarity. q and d are query and

162 163 164 165 166 document samples. As depicted in [Figure 3,](#page-2-0) we use bidirectional attention followed by mean pooling, which corresponds to averaging the hidden states across the sequence length. During pooling, we only average the final hidden states of the input sample, ignoring the instruction and format tokens. However, the instruction and format tokens still influence the final representation through the self-attention mechanism [\(Vaswani et al.,](#page-20-2) [2023\)](#page-20-2).

To compute the loss on generative data, we use the language modeling objective whereby the model needs to predict the next token [\(Radford et al.,](#page-18-4) [2018;](#page-18-4) [2019\)](#page-18-0):

$$
\begin{array}{c} 169 \\ 170 \end{array}
$$

167 168

- **171**
- **172 173**

 $\mathcal{L}_{Gen} = -\frac{1}{N}$ N $\sum_{i=1}^{N}$ $i=1$ $\log P(f_{\theta,\eta}(x^{(i)})|f_{\theta,\eta}(x^{($)) (2) where f is GRITLM with parameters θ and language modeling head η , which is only used for

174 175 176 177 178 179 180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187 188 generation. x are generative training samples. We only compute loss over predicted tokens i.e. ${\rm (response\}<$ /s>" in [Figure 3.](#page-2-0) A key consideration is how to aggregate the generative loss. Aggregating at the sample level corresponds to giving each sample the same weight within a batch regardless of its token count. Such aggregation is commonly used for instruction tuning, as it can boost performance on discriminative tasks [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-3) [2023d\)](#page-17-3). However, [Muennighoff et al.](#page-17-3) [\(2023d\)](#page-17-3) also show how this in turn can lead to a model biased toward short generations. Meanwhile, aggregation at the token level corresponds to giving each token the same weight, thus samples with many tokens become more important. This leads to a model producing longer generations, which can be important for performance on generative tasks. Especially, human or machine-evaluated generative tasks, such as AlpacaEval [\(Li et al.,](#page-16-1) [2023b\)](#page-16-1), are known to be biased toward preferring longer generations [\(Wang et al.,](#page-21-1) [2023\)](#page-21-1). Note that when every sample has the same sequence length such as during pretraining or when the batch size is 1, token and sample level generative loss are equal to each other. One can mix the two to balance their trade-offs, for example doing token level loss across a subset of the batch and then giving each subset the same weight. We explore the trade-offs in our ablations in [Appendix A.](#page-24-0) We sum the objectives with optional loss weights λ_{Rep} and λ_{Gen} :

$$
\mathcal{L}_{GRIT} = \lambda_{Rep} \mathcal{L}_{Rep} + \lambda_{Gen} \mathcal{L}_{Gen}
$$
 (3)

Notably, our formulation supports differing numbers of embedding samples (M) and generative samples/tokens (N) . This allows for significantly increasing the embedding batch size while keeping the generative batch size fixed. A large embedding batch size is often key to well-performing text embedding models [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023\)](#page-21-2) at the cost of requiring more compute at each step.

3 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we first outline our experimental setup in $\S 3.1$. In $\S 3.2$, we discuss and benchmark the embedding and generative performance of our models. In [Appendix A,](#page-24-0) we ablate the settings that led to our final models, including training data, precision, pooling, sequence length, and loss weights.

201 202 3.1 SETUP

203 204 205 206 207 208 209 210 211 212 213 214 215 We finetune our final models from Mistral 7B [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-15-4) [2023\)](#page-15-4) and Mixtral 8x7B [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-15-3) [2024\)](#page-15-3) using adaptations of E5 [\(Wang et al.,](#page-20-1) [2024\)](#page-20-1) and the Tülu 2 data ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5). For E5, we adapt it by adding S2ORC [\(Lo et al.,](#page-16-2) [2020\)](#page-16-2) to increase its scientific data ("E5S"), while for Tülu 2 we filter out their custom prompts that contain answers related to the origin of their model. For GRITLM 7B, we use a batch size of 2048 for embedding data and 256 for generative data and we train the model for a total of 1253 steps corresponding to one epoch on the generative data and 1.36 epochs on the embedding data. For GRITLM 8X7B, the embedding batch size is 256 due to compute limitations. We use several strategies to reduce the memory required during training including a novel technique to split the embedding triplet into separate forward and backward passes detailed in [Appendix K.](#page-38-0) Other hyperparameters are detailed in the ablation experiments in [Appendix A](#page-24-0) and [Appendix L.](#page-39-0) For embedding performance we evaluate using the 56 main datasets from MTEB [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0). For generative performance, we largely follow the evaluation setup of [Ivison et al.](#page-15-5) [\(2023\)](#page-15-5) except that we use the HumanEvalSynthesize [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a\)](#page-17-4) variant of HumanEval, as it is more adequate for instruction-following models. We explain each task in detail in [Appendix H.](#page-31-0)

Table 1: Embedding performance of GRITLM and others. We indicate parameter counts where available (B=billions). See [Appendix H](#page-31-0) for task, metric, and dataset details. [Appendix J](#page-37-0) contains per-dataset results of GRITLM models. LLMs not finetuned for embedding (Llama 2 70B, Mistral 7B (Instruct), GPT-J 6B, Gen.-only) are evaluated with weighted-mean pooling [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1). ♥Results from the MTEB leaderboard (<https://hf.co/spaces/mteb/leaderboard>)

Table 2: Generative performance of GRITLM and others. We indicate parameter counts where available (B=billions). See [Appendix H](#page-31-0) for dataset, setup, and metric details. ♥Results from [Ivison](#page-15-5) [et al.](#page-15-5) [\(2023\)](#page-20-3) except for numbers marked with \bullet which are from [Touvron et al.](#page-20-3) (2023) and \dagger which are from us. For models that cannot be easily used as chat models, we set Alpaca to 0.

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270 271 3.2 MAIN RESULTS

272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 294 295 296 GRIT leads to a strong embedding and generative model We benchmark GRITLM 7B, GRITLM 8X7B and generative- and embedding-only variants with other models in [Table 1](#page-4-0) and [Table 2.](#page-4-1) We find that GRITLM 7B outperforms various prior open models on the Massive Text Embedding Benchmark [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0) while still outperforming a range of generative models up to its size of 7 billion parameters. For our comparisons we focus on models that are similar to GritLM (e.g. E5 Mistral [\(Wang et al.,](#page-20-1) [2024\)](#page-20-1) uses the same base model, Instructor [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023\)](#page-19-4) uses a similar dataset, etc.), but we note that there have been various recent embedding and generative models with stronger performance, such as Llama3 [\(Dubey et al.,](#page-12-1) [2024\)](#page-12-1), NV-Embed [\(Lee et al.,](#page-16-3) [2024\)](#page-16-3) and others [\(Li et al.,](#page-16-4) [2024;](#page-16-4) [2023c;](#page-16-5) [Meng et al.,](#page-17-5) [2024;](#page-17-5) [Chen et al.,](#page-10-3) [2024b;](#page-10-3) [Kim et al.,](#page-16-6) [2024\)](#page-16-6). However, GRIT models are the only ones that can handle both embedding and generation at strong performance [\(Figure 1\)](#page-0-0). For example, using Llama 70B [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-20-3) [2023\)](#page-20-3) for embedding leads to a score of only 35.6 on MTEB as depicted in [Table 1.](#page-4-0) GRITLM almost doubles that performance on MTEB, while still outperforming Llama 70B on generative tasks by more than 20% [\(Table 2\)](#page-4-1). For GRITLM 8X7B, the embedding performance slightly decreases from GRITLM 7B, which is likely because we had to decrease its embedding batch size from 2048 for GRITLM 7B to only 256 for GRITLM 8X7B due to compute limitations [\(§3.1\)](#page-3-0). We also train embedding-only and generative-only variants of GRITLM that only use representational or generative instruction tuning but are otherwise equivalent. Benchmarking the embedding-only variant (or models like SGPT BE 5.8B [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1)) on generative tasks in [Table 2](#page-4-1) by simply re-adding the language modeling head that was dropped during embedding finetuning leads to around random performance (25.0 is the random baseline on MMLU). Similarly, benchmarking the embedding performance of the generative-only model only leads to a score of 41.2 in [Table 1.](#page-4-0) Thus, joint optimization via the GRIT approach is critical to achieve strong performance for both embedding and generation. We note, however, that with 7 billion parameters GRITLM 7B is significantly more costly to run than many other embedding models in [Table 1,](#page-4-0) such as BGE Large with only 335 million parameters [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023\)](#page-21-2). In addition, GRITLM 7B produces representations of 4096 dimensions, which require $4\times$ more storage than the 1024-dimensional embeddings of BGE Large.

298 299 300 301 302 GRITLM matches embedding-only and generative-only variants We find that unifying the two objectives via GRITLM matches both the generative-only and the embedding-only variants. This is similar to observations made for visual models [\(Yu et al.,](#page-21-3) [2022\)](#page-21-3). However, while GRITLM is trained for the same number of steps as the embedding- and generative-only models, it needs more compute per training step as it does a forward and backward pass on both embedding and generative data.

4 RERANKING WITH GRIT

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Table 3: Reranking (Rerank) using GRITLM as both Bi- and Cross-Encoder.

For retrieval tasks, it is common to follow the embedding-based retrieval stage by a reranking stage [\(Nogueira & Cho,](#page-18-5) [2020\)](#page-18-5). In the reranking stage, for each query, the top- k chosen documents are reranked based on a usually more expensive but more performant method. For LLMs, prior work has shown that this can be done by passing each of the k documents together with the query to the model and scoring the pair with log probabilities [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1). Note that this scales quadratically with the number of documents and queries and is thus usually too expensive for the first stage ("Cross-Encoder"). Meanwhile, using embeddings for the first stage is much cheaper as it only requires passing each query and each document once and thus scales linearly ("Bi-Encoder"). More recent work relies on instructions to use LLMs for reranking [\(Sun et al.,](#page-20-4) [2023;](#page-20-4) [Ma et al.,](#page-17-6) [2023b;](#page-17-6) [Pradeep et al.,](#page-18-6) [2023a](#page-18-6)[;b\)](#page-18-7). While prior work uses separate models for the embedding and rerank**324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331** ing stages, GRITLM can be used for both stages due to its unified capabilities. In [Table 3,](#page-5-1) we display the embedding performance of GRITLM 7B when additionally allowing it to rerank the top 10 documents selected via its embedding capabilities for each query. For reranking, we use the model's generative capabilities following the permutation generation approach from [Sun et al.](#page-20-4) [\(2023\)](#page-20-4) and reusing their prompt. We find that reranking via the generative capabilities of GRITLM 7B allows it to improve on its own embedding performance on almost every retrieval dataset. Increasing the top-k documents beyond ten is likely to further improve results, however, at the cost of more compute [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1).

5 RAG WITH GRIT

Figure 4: RAG with GRIT. *Left:* Traditional Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) relies on a separate embedding model and generative model. *Right:* GRITLM simplifies RAG as it handles both embedding and generation. Query Caching removes the duplicate forward pass of the query by reusing its representation. Query-Doc Caching also removes the forward pass on the document during inference, as the cached index also stores the document key-value states.

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370 371 372 Method By unifying embedding and generation, GRITLM simplifies Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG). [Figure 4](#page-6-0) displays how caching can reduce forward passes. Specifically, we introduce: (a) Query Caching: In traditional RAG, the query needs to be passed both through the embedding model and later through the generative model. In Query Caching, we cache the key-value states from the embedding forward pass and reuse them for the generative pass, exploiting the property that both are the same model: GRITLM. Thus, we save compute equivalent to one forward pass of the query. Equivalently, we can also perform the generative forward pass over the query first and use its representation to retrieve the document on the fly (depicted in [Figure 4\)](#page-6-0). To make the generations with Query Caching completely equivalent to RAG, we place the query at the beginning of the prompt such that it only attends to itself through causal attention.

373 374 375 376 377 (b) Doc Caching: Here we cache the documents, D. When the index is created, we also save the key-value states of every document and add them to the index. Thus, the index consists of the document embeddings and key-value states. Note that the computational cost of creating the index remains the same as the key-value states have to be computed even if only embeddings are desired. At inference, we still retrieve based on embedding similarity but the index returns the key-value states instead of the text passage. These key-value states are then provided to the model to avoid having to

Figure 5: Inference latency of RAG with GRITLM 7B. When benchmarking scaling query length (left), document length is fixed at 1, whereas query length is fixed at 1 when scaling document length (right). In addition to the query/doc lengths, the formatting and prompt take up around 40 tokens. We visualize the standard deviation across 100 runs as the shaded area. For each approach, we generate 16 tokens. See [Figure 6](#page-29-0) for CPU latency.

397 398 399 400 401 402 recompute them. This effectively saves a forward pass for every in-context document at inference. However, this method increases the necessary storage. While the text passages no longer need to be stored, the key-value states now need to be stored and they usually require more storage depending on the model. We note that Document Caching also works for models other than GRITLM. However, for such models, one needs to pass all documents through the generation model ahead of time, thus increasing the cost of creating the index. To maintain equivalence with RAG, the document should be at the beginning of the prompt for Document Caching (opposite of Query Caching).

403 404 405 406 407 408 (b) Query-Doc Caching / Doc-Query Caching: We can also combine Query Caching and Doc Caching to save even more inference costs. However, combining them inevitably leads to discrepancies compared to RAG, as in traditional RAG either the query or the document is conditioned on the other one. Meanwhile, if both are cached then they are not conditioned on one another via the self-attention mechanism. We refer to Query-Doc Caching if the query is followed by the document in the prompt and to Doc-Query Caching if the document comes first.

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410 411 412 413 414 415 416 Setup We benchmark the caching variants on Natural Questions [\(Kwiatkowski et al.,](#page-16-7) [2019\)](#page-16-7) using 2,681,468 documents from BEIR NQ [\(Thakur et al.,](#page-20-5) [2021\)](#page-20-5) as our index. We score models by checking if any correct answer is anywhere in the generation ("match"). Prior work often checks if the generation exactly matches the answer ("exact match") [\(Izacard et al.,](#page-15-6) [2022\)](#page-15-6). However, due to the chat data our model answers in few sentences, thus exact match fails to credit many correct answers. In the first 20 samples of the "No RAG" baseline, "exact match" leads to 4 false negatives that "match" credits correctly without any false positives. We do not use instructions for embedding here, only the format in [Figure 3.](#page-2-0)

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418 419 420 421 422 423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 Performance As depicted in [Table 4,](#page-8-0) RAG performs better than the "No RAG" baseline where the model is not provided any context. This validates that despite its small size compared to prior work [\(Lin et al.,](#page-16-8) [2023\)](#page-16-8), our index is still valuable. While Query and Doc Caching can theoretically lead to the exact same performance as RAG, we experience differences for two reasons: 1) Attention: Our model is trained to embed with bidirectional attention [\(§2\)](#page-2-1) and thus we use bidirectional attention when embedding query or document. Meanwhile, the generative model expects causal key-value states. In the Query-Doc/Doc-Query setup, there is an additional mismatch in either the documents or the queries not having attended to the other one, as both need to be embedded and cached separately. 2) Formatting: The query is formatted in the embedding format as depicted in [Figure 3,](#page-2-0) which the model has never seen during generative training. This could further lead to a performance drop. Due to 1) and 2), Query Caching leads to a performance drop compared to traditional RAG. However, the Query Caching performance of 25.46 is still better than not using RAG, thus it comes down to a speed-performance trade-off. Formatting the RAG baseline using the embedding format [\(Figure 3\)](#page-2-0) reduces its score from 30.50 to 29.36 (not depicted), thus the additional four-point discrepancy of Query Caching and the majority of the damage is because of the attention issue. Meanwhile, Doc Caching slightly improves performance resulting in the best match score among all methods

432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 Table 4: RAG benchmarking on Natural Questions with GRITLM 7B. For RAG, the retrieved context is simply placed in the context of the language model in contrast to our caching alternatives [\(Figure 4\)](#page-6-0). CPU and GPU latencies are measured on an "Intel(R) Xeon(R) Platinum 8481C CPU \circledR 2.70GHz" and one "NVIDIA H100 80GB HBM3", respectively. Sample A has a query of 1 token and a document of 4000 tokens, and sample B is the inverse. For each approach, we generate 16 tokens. Storage consists of the index and passages, except for Doc Caching variants where it is the index and key-value states. The index is stored in float32, while key-value states are stored in bfloat16. See [Appendix F](#page-30-0) for experiments on TriviaQA and MMLU.

considered. This is possibly because, unlike the query, the document does not need to be as thoroughly understood, and skimming it may suffice. Thus, the slightly corrupted key-value states do not result in a performance drop. Query-Doc and Doc-Query Caching only perform near the "No RAG" baseline in our experiments, which may limit their usefulness in practice. This is likely caused by the additional attention mismatch that they introduce. This issue as well as the formatting issue could likely be solved by an additional RAG finetuning stage on top of GRITLM, which we leave to future work.

460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 Latency Caching is much faster than RAG on both CPUs and GPUs, especially for long sequences [\(Figure 5\)](#page-7-0). In [Table 4,](#page-8-0) we display that for 4000 tokens, Query Caching is 54% and 33% faster on CPUs and GPUs, respectively (Sample B). For Doc Caching it is 63% and 31% (Sample A). If going beyond 4000 tokens the speed-ups will be even larger. However, for the opposite samples in [Table 4](#page-8-0) speed remains around the same. This is because while for Sample A, Doc Caching caches 4000 tokens, for Sample B it caches only 1 token, which does not provide any speed-up. Thus, Doc Caching should be used when documents are expected to be very long, while Query Caching should be used when queries are expected to be very long. In a production setting, a simple input length check could switch from one caching mode to the other. As is the case in [Table 4,](#page-8-0) caching can match or even be faster than not using retrieval at all ("No RAG"). This could be due to the embedding forward pass not using the language modeling head. For Query Caching, the language modeling head is only used for the tokens that are generated, while for "RAG" and "No RAG" it is used for the entire input. The matrix multiplication with the language modeling head is computationally expensive due to its high dimensionality, which could cause the slower speed of the no retrieval baseline. Query-Doc Caching and Doc-Query Caching cache both documents and queries and thus lead to major speed-ups for both Sample A and Sample B in [Table 4.](#page-8-0) Overall, speed-ups are larger on CPUs, as GPUs can process the entire sequence in parallel, thus the advantage of caching parts of it is smaller. We also note that our RAG baseline uses our 7B parameter model for both the embedding and generative model but without caching. In practice, it is often common to have an embedding model that is much smaller and cheaper than the generative model. Nonetheless, as caching with GRITLM-7B approaches the No RAG latency in [Table 4,](#page-8-0) we still expect it to be faster than setups with smaller embedding models for long sequences. In addition, it would lead to significantly better performance in that case due to the state-of-the-art retrieval performance of GRITLM.

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482 483 484 485 Storage In most RAG setups the embeddings of all documents are precomputed and stored to be later used at inference. This is referred to as the index. In traditional RAG, the documents themselves still need to be stored, as the index is only used to find the document ID, which is then used to fetch the document text and pass it to the generative model. For Doc Caching variants documents no longer need to be stored, however, the key-value states need to be stored. The key-value states take

486 487 488 489 490 491 up a lot of storage, as they consist of two tensors of shape (batch size, number of heads, sequence length, dimension per head) for each batch. For our 2,681,468 documents and the 7-billion parameter GRITLM model, this leads to 30TB of key-value states. However, unlike the index, the key-value states can be fully offloaded to disk and do not need to be kept in memory. Once the document ID has been determined via the index, the corresponding key-value state can be simply loaded from disk. For a single sample, this corresponds to loading 12.5MB of key-value states into memory.

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6 RELATED WORK

495 496 The story of text embedding and text generation has been a story of unification.

497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 507 508 509 510 Embedding Models used to focus on word representations [\(Pennington et al.,](#page-18-8) [2014;](#page-18-8) [Mikolov](#page-17-7) [et al.,](#page-17-7) [2013\)](#page-17-7) that struggled generalizing to entire sentences or passages [\(Conneau & Kiela,](#page-11-3) [2018\)](#page-11-3). InferSent [\(Conneau et al.,](#page-11-4) [2018\)](#page-11-4), SBERT [\(Reimers & Gurevych,](#page-19-5) [2019\)](#page-19-5) and similar models [\(Ni](#page-18-3) [et al.,](#page-18-3) [2021b;](#page-18-3)[a\)](#page-18-2) emerged that handle both the embedding of words and sentences at good quality by considering context when present. However, for strong performance, they require separate models for symmetric and asymmetric tasks [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c;](#page-17-0) [Neelakantan et al.,](#page-17-8) [2022\)](#page-17-8). Symmetric embedding tasks are ones where the query and document are expected to come from the same distribution, such as STS. Meanwhile, for asymmetric tasks, they come from different distributions and as such could have very different sequence lengths like in retrieval. For example, the MTEB benchmark [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0) revealed that SentT5 [\(Ni et al.,](#page-18-3) [2021b\)](#page-18-3) only performs well at symmetric tasks, while GTR [\(Ni et al.,](#page-18-2) [2021a\)](#page-18-2) only at asymmetric tasks despite both using T5 [\(Raffel](#page-18-1) [et al.,](#page-18-1) [2023\)](#page-18-1) as their base model. Recent embedding models have been able to unify symmetric and asymmetric tasks into a single model by differentiating them in the prompt [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023;](#page-21-2) [Wang](#page-20-6) [et al.,](#page-20-6) [2022a\)](#page-20-6). Further, including detailed instructions in the prompt has allowed unifying practically any embedding task into a single model [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023\)](#page-19-4).

511 512 513 514 515 516 517 518 519 520 521 Generative Models used to be tailored to a single task, such as translation [\(Sutskever et al.,](#page-20-7) [2014\)](#page-20-7) or question answering [\(Yin et al.,](#page-21-4) [2016\)](#page-21-4). [McCann et al.](#page-17-9) [\(2018\)](#page-17-9) cast multiple generative tasks as question answering to unify them within a single model, however, performance was still limited and it did not generalize to arbitrary tasks. Large-scale self-supervised pretraining has enabled the use of a single large language model (LLM) for practically any generative task [\(Brown et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020;](#page-10-1) [Chowdhery](#page-11-5) [et al.,](#page-11-5) [2022;](#page-11-5) [Rae et al.,](#page-18-9) [2022;](#page-18-9) [BigScience Workshop et al.,](#page-10-4) [2023;](#page-10-4) [Scao et al.,](#page-19-6) [2022;](#page-19-6) [Groeneveld et al.,](#page-14-2) [2024;](#page-14-2) [Li et al.,](#page-16-9) [2023a\)](#page-16-9). However, using an LLM without careful prompting often leads to poor performance [\(Rubin et al.,](#page-19-7) [2022;](#page-19-7) [Min et al.,](#page-17-10) [2022b\)](#page-17-10). Finetuning LLMs on instructions has emerged as a method to significantly ease the usage of the models to apply them to any generative task with strong results [\(Wei et al.,](#page-21-0) [2022;](#page-21-0) [Sanh et al.,](#page-19-3) [2022;](#page-19-3) [Min et al.,](#page-17-11) [2022a;](#page-17-11) [Wang et al.,](#page-20-8) [2022c;](#page-20-8) [Mishra et al.,](#page-17-12) [2022;](#page-17-12) [Iyer et al.,](#page-15-7) [2023;](#page-15-7) Üstün et al., [2024;](#page-19-8) [Singh et al.,](#page-19-8) 2024; [Zhou et al.,](#page-22-1) [2023\)](#page-22-1).

522 523 The two streams of embedding and generative models have each been unified into a single model that handles any task within its stream. Unifying the two streams into a single model that handles any task both for embedding and generation is the natural next step toward a general multi-task model.

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7 CONCLUSION

527 528 529 530 531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 We present GRIT to unify text embedding and generation, and thus all text-based language problems, into one model: GRITLM. GRITLM 7B performs strongly on the Massive Text Embedding Benchmark, while simultaneously possessing generative capabilities that exceed some larger models. Notably, its performance matches otherwise equivalent embedding-only and generative-only variants allowing us to unify them at no performance loss. We show that GRIT simplifies the field using the examples of reranking and RAG. For reranking, we are able to improve retrieval performance by around 10% by reusing GRITLM as reranker instead of having to rely on a separate model. For RAG, we unify the retriever and reader into a single model, GRITLM, speeding up inference by $>60\%$ for long texts at no performance loss via GRIT Doc Caching. We believe GRIT paves the way for a paradigm shift in language modeling, where embedding and generation seamlessly coexist in a single model. As such, we highlight the various limitations of this work and point the community to potential future research in [Appendix Q.](#page-41-0)

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1296 1297 A ABLATIONS

1298 1299 1300 1301 1302 1303 1304 1305 1306 1307 1308 1309 1310 1311 1312 1313 1314 1315 1316 1317 1318 1319 Attention and pooling We train GRITLM starting from a pretrained decoder language model which has been trained with causal attention. Prior work has shown that while embeddings of causal LLMs are competitive, they are outperformed by BERT-like encoders with bidirectional attention at the same number of parameters [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022;](#page-17-1) [Devlin et al.,](#page-11-6) [2019\)](#page-11-6). This lines up with intuition, as bidirectional attention allows the model to adjust the representation of the first tokens based on information obtained from future tokens. Meanwhile, causal attention only allows information to propagate one way. Thus, for causal attention early tokens may yield poor representations due to a lack of understanding of the entire sample. To counter this issue, we experiment with adapting the model during finetuning to learn to use bidirectional attention. In [Table 5](#page-25-0) we find that **adapting the causally** pretrained LLM with bidirectional attention provides the best embedding performance. For fully causal embeddings, we confirm findings from [Muennighoff](#page-17-1) [\(2022\)](#page-17-1) that position-weighted mean pooling ("Wmean") leads to better embedding performance than taking the embedding of the last token despite recent work finding the opposite [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-21-5) [2023;](#page-21-5) [Ma et al.,](#page-17-13) [2023a\)](#page-17-13). For last token pooling, we follow [Zhang et al.](#page-21-5) [\(2023\)](#page-21-5) and use a special token. We find that adapting the model to be a PrefixLM [\(Raffel et al.,](#page-18-1) [2023\)](#page-18-1), whereby the attention over the generative instruction is bidirectional but still causal for the response ("Sample") worsens performance in contrast to prior work [\(Wang et al.,](#page-20-9) [2022b\)](#page-20-9). Thus, we stick with fully causal generation. The unified variant significantly outperforms the embedding-only variants, while underperforming the best generative-only variant. However, once we switched from MEDI to the E5 dataset in later ablations the embedding-only variant matched the unified variant. Meanwhile, the worse generative performance of the unified model was due to a suboptimal loss setting that we fixed in the loss ablations. Several papers after the initial preprint release of this work have confirmed the benefit of bidirectional attention [\(BehnamGhader et al.,](#page-10-5) [2024;](#page-10-5) [Springer et al.,](#page-19-9) [2024\)](#page-19-9).

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1321 1322 1323 1324 1325 1326 1327 Base model The GRITLM approach generalizes to any generative language model, thus we ablate initializing from GPT-J 6B [\(Wang & Komatsuzaki,](#page-20-10) [2021\)](#page-20-10), Llama 2 7B or Mistral 7B [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-15-4) [2023\)](#page-15-4). Using Mistral 7B leads to the best performance for both embedding and generative tasks. For generative tasks, this is expected as the pretrained Mistral 7B performs the best among the three [\(Table 2\)](#page-4-1). However, for embedding tasks, GPT-J outperforms Mistral 7B [\(Table 1\)](#page-4-0). Thus, the embedding performance of a pretrained model is not predictive of its embedding performance after finetuning. Rather, its generative performance appears to be a more reliable indicator of its embedding performance after finetuning.

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1329 1330 1331 1332 1333 1334 1335 Generative dataset We benchmark our filtered Tülu 2 introduced in [§3.1](#page-3-0) [\(Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5) with UltraChat [\(Ding et al.,](#page-11-7) [2023;](#page-11-7) [Tunstall et al.,](#page-20-11) [2023\)](#page-20-11) and the OpenAssistant version from Oc-toPack [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a;](#page-17-4) Köpf et al., [2023;](#page-16-10) [Longpre et al.,](#page-16-11) [2023\)](#page-16-11). Using Tülu 2 leads to better performance on every generative task considered (see [Appendix I](#page-32-0) for per-task results). This is likely due to Tülu 2 containing a larger diversity of tasks ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) 2023). Another possible reason is that Tülu 2 may have been carefully tuned on the generative evaluation datasets, as we use largely the same evaluation setup as the creators of Tülu 2 ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5).

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1337 1338 1339 1340 1341 1342 1343 1344 1345 1346 1347 1348 1349 Embedding dataset We benchmark MEDI [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023\)](#page-19-4), a new version of MEDI with better negatives which we build and call MEDI2, and the E5 dataset [\(Wang et al.,](#page-20-1) [2024\)](#page-20-1). While MEDI and MEDI2 always preface instructions with "Represent" (see e.g. [Figure 11\)](#page-45-0), the E5 dataset places no constraint on the instruction prefix (see e.g. [Figure 12\)](#page-46-0). Thus, when using the E5 dataset the "<|embed|>" formatting is critical to tell the model that it will be subject to the representation loss, not the generative loss [\(Figure 3\)](#page-2-0). Further, MEDI and MEDI2 always contain instructions for both queries and documents, which we refer to as **two-sided instructions**. Meanwhile, the E5 dataset uses one-sided instructions for asymmetric datasets [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1), whereby the documents receive no instructions, only the queries. The advantage of not using document instructions is that the document corpus can be encoded once and then cached and reused across a variety of tasks. During training on E5, symmetric tasks are also in a one-sided setting, but we still evaluate them in the two-sided format. This should not be a problem as the cosine similarity function we use during training is transitive: if sentence A with instruction is similar to sentence B without instruction, and sentence B without instruction is similar to sentence C with instruction, then we can confidently say that sentence A with instruction is also similar to sentence C with instruction. As depicted in [Table 5,](#page-25-0)

1393 1394 1395 (k) Loss ablations. $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Rep}}/\mathcal{L}_{\text{Gen}}$ is the loss ratio of the 1st step adjusted via λ_{Rep} and λ_{Gen} . Mix refers to mixing sample and token level loss, e.g. $(32 \rightarrow 8)$ is token level loss across 32 samples and then sample level loss across 8 sub-batches for a total batch size of 256.

1396 1397 1398 1399 1400 1401 1402 Table 5: GRIT ablations. Emb corresponds to the MTEB average, while Gen corresponds to the average across generative tasks [\(Appendix H\)](#page-31-0). The embedding head variant " \rightarrow 1024" corresponds to down-projecting the final hidden state with a linear layer from 4096 to 1024 dimensions, only for embedding tasks. BF16[∗] means that some computations are still in FP32 as explained in [Appendix A.](#page-24-0) The setting chosen for GRITLM is bold. Once an ablation was successful, we adopted its setting, thus the bold performance slightly varies from one table to the next. For example, the base model ablation (b) is done for just 100 hundred steps with sub-optimal formatting. Full results are in [Appendix I.](#page-32-0)

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1404 1405 1406 using the E5 dataset performs best by a wide margin. An inspection of samples, suggests that this is likely due to its superior hard negatives and diversity of tasks generated by GPT-4 [\(Appendix S\)](#page-44-0). For our final runs with the E5 dataset, we additionally add scientific data [\(§3.1\)](#page-3-0).

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1408 1409 1410 1411 1412 1413 1414 1415 1416 1417 1418 1419 1420 Embedding head The cost of caching the embeddings of a large document corpus is directly proportional to the embedding dimensionality. To minimize such costs, we experiment with adding an embedding head consisting of a linear layer with activation that down-projects the embedding [\(Ni](#page-18-2) [et al.,](#page-18-2) [2021a;](#page-18-2) [Muennighoff,](#page-17-1) [2022\)](#page-17-1). This layer is only used for embedding tasks. Down-projecting the embeddings four-fold (from 4096 to 1024) leads to an embedding performance decrease of around 1%. This may be acceptable for certain use cases where the saved storage is more important. However, for our final model, we do not use such a head to keep it simple and achieve maximum performance. Search techniques [\(Arya et al.,](#page-10-6) [1998;](#page-10-6) [Johnson et al.,](#page-15-8) [2017;](#page-15-8) [Douze et al.,](#page-11-8) [2024\)](#page-11-8) or dimensionality reduction techniques such as Principal Component Analysis still allow for reducing the embedding dimension of our final model post-training while maintaining most of the performance. Similar to the storage cost-performance trade-off we explore here, we hypothesize that there is a speed/cost-performance trade-off with taking the embedding from different layers of our model. For example, we could train using the embedding after half the layers of the model, thus speeding up the embedding model by 50% while likely only incurring a small drop in embedding performance

1422 1423 1424 1425 1426 1427 1428 1429 Batch size Due to the utilization of in-batch negatives for contrastive training $(\S 2)$, a larger batch size provides a more accurate gradient. Thus, scaling up the batch size is a key ingredient in most well-performing embedding models [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023;](#page-21-2) [Wang et al.,](#page-20-6) [2022a\)](#page-20-6). We experiment with scaling up the embedding batch size to 4096 while keeping it at 256 for generative data. This leads to a 1.0 gain on the embedding average while generative performance remains stable. Especially the 15 retrieval datasets that are part of the embedding average benefit from the increase in batch size (see [Table 18\)](#page-35-0). For our final model, we use a batch size of 2048 for embedding and 256 for generative data.

1430 1431 1432 1433 1434 1435 1436 1437 1438 1439 1440 1441 1442 1443 1444 Precision The parameters of the Mistral 7B model are in bfloat16 (BF16) precision as it was pretrained in this format. We experiment with finetuning it with float32 (FP32) precision versus keeping the BF16 format and training with mixed precision. FP32 training is more costly, however, the additional precision may result in a better model. Our intuition is that more precision is important for embedding but not as much for generation. This is because while for generative tasks evaluated greedily, the model output is a discretionary argmax over the predictions of the language modeling head, for embedding tasks it is a continuous representation. Thus, small differences due to a lack of precision may not change the model's generation but will affect its representation. Hence, for embedding tasks, we always cast the hidden states to FP32 during the pooling operation and keep them this way for the similarity computation. Not keeping them in FP32 after pooling worsens performance slightly, but may be necessary for cheap storage (see [Appendix O\)](#page-40-1). In addition, some operations such as layer normalization [\(Ba et al.,](#page-10-7) [2016\)](#page-10-7) are also performed in FP32 even for BF16 training due to PyTorch autocast [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-22-2) [2023\)](#page-22-2). In [Table 5,](#page-25-0) we find that there is no benefit from doing even more computations in FP32 besides the ones listed above. Thus, we train and evaluate all our other models in BF16 mixed precision to speed up training and inference.

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1446 1447 1448 1449 1450 In-batch negatives We always use in-batch negatives for embedding training $(\S 2)$, however, we ablate whether or not they come from the same dataset. We hypothesize that making them all come from the same dataset leads to better negatives as the model needs to distinguish them based on more nuanced differences. In practice, we find that the average embedding performance remains around the same. However, we notice a 1.3 jump on the 15-dataset Retrieval average [\(Table 20\)](#page-35-1). Thus, we stick with the variant where in-batch negatives stem from the same dataset.

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1452 1453 1454 1455 1456 1457 Format Our chosen format is depicted in [Figure 3,](#page-2-0) which is equivalent to Tülu 2 ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5) for generative tasks. We also benchmark the Zephyr β format [\(Tunstall et al.,](#page-20-11) [2023\)](#page-20-11), which has an additional end-of-sequence token $(*\langle s \rangle^{\sim})$ after each user utterance. We find that it performs worse on generative tasks. The additional end-of-sequence after the user utterance increases the likelihood of the model generating another end-of-sequence token earlier than necessary. This significantly harms HumanEvalSynthesize performance and slightly reduces AlpacaEval, where long generations can be critical (see [Appendix I](#page-32-0) for task-specific performance).

1458 1459 1460 1461 1462 1463 1464 1465 1466 1467 1468 1469 1470 Max tokens Our base model, Mistral 7B, can handle sequences of arbitrary length due to its sliding window attention [\(Jiang et al.,](#page-15-4) [2023\)](#page-15-4). As finetuning with longer sequences is more expensive we ablate its benefits. We compare training with a maximum token limit of 512 versus 2048 for embedding documents. For embedding queries, we always use 256, and for generative data, we always use 2048. We find that increasing the embedding document sequence length during training slightly boosts performance on both embedding and generation even though we still evaluate embedding tasks with 512. This boost likely comes from our training data containing many documents beyond 512 tokens, which need to be truncated if the maximum sequence length is 512. Such truncation may remove the critical parts that make two texts a positive or a negative contrastive pair and thus hinder learning. As our embedding evaluation (MTEB) contains few documents longer than 512 tokens there is little truncation happening at evaluation [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c;](#page-17-0) Günther et al., [2024;](#page-14-3) [2023\)](#page-14-4). Note that just like their base models, our final models GRITLM 7B and GRITLM 8X7B can produce embeddings for sequences of arbitrary length. However, due to a lack of benchmarks, we do not know how well the embeddings of our models perform for input sequences longer than 512 tokens.

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1472 1473 1474 1475 1476 1477 1478 1479 1480 1481 1482 1483 1484 1485 1486 1487 1488 1489 Loss ablations As detailed in [§2,](#page-2-1) we experiment with both token and sample level generative loss. Further, we ablate the representation and generative loss weights, λ_{Rep} and λ_{Gen} . For the unified visual model CoCa, the authors find that giving a weight of 2 to generation and 1 to embedding boosts performance on both streams [\(Yu et al.,](#page-21-3) [2022\)](#page-21-3). However, rather than the weights, we argue that the loss ratio, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Rep}}/\mathcal{L}_{\text{Gen}}$, is of more interest as it reveals which objective has a larger impact on the optimization of the model. We maintain a ratio of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Ren}}/ \mathcal{L}_{\text{Gen}}$ *i*, 1 i.e. giving more weight to the representation loss. This is because the model has already been pretrained with the generative loss, thus we expect less additional generative training to be necessary. Meanwhile, the contrastive loss for embedding data is new to the model, thus we expect more learning to be needed on the embedding side. Further, the embedding loss drops off extremely quickly as can be seen in the loss graphs in [Appendix G.](#page-30-1) Thus, even though the representation loss has a higher weight at the start, throughout training they have very similar weights with both hovering around a loss of 1.0. We find that mixing sample and token level generative loss leads to the best performance by a small margin. As expected in [§2,](#page-2-1) token level loss to some degree is critical for good performance on AlpacaEval. For "Mix $(4 - 564)$ " token level loss is applied across only 4 samples and then sample level loss across 64 sub-batches, which leads to a 7-point drop in AlpacaEval performance. This drop is accompanied by a decrease in median AlpacaEval generation length from 941 to 865. Thus, token level loss across many samples is critical to maintaining long generations, which directly impacts the AlpacaEval score.

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1491 1492 B DISCUSSION

1493 1494 1495 1496 1497 1498 1499 1500 1501 1502 1503 Further unification To the best of our knowledge, GRITLM is the first model to unify text embedding and generation, and thus all text-based language problems, into a single model at strong performance. However, many adjacent directions remain to be improved or unified. (a) Multilinguality: Our model is also capable of embedding and generation in non-English languages as seen in its TyDi QA performance [\(Table 2\)](#page-4-1). However, major performance gains on non-English tasks are likely possible through both data [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-3) [2023d;](#page-17-3) [Yong et al.,](#page-21-6) [2023\)](#page-21-6) and architecture changes [\(Chen et al.,](#page-10-8) [2024a;](#page-10-8) [Feng et al.,](#page-14-5) [2022;](#page-14-5) [Duquenne et al.,](#page-13-0) [2023\)](#page-13-0) targeting multilinguality. (b) Multimodality: Many embedding and generative problems are not purely text-based, such as joint embedding of images and text [\(Radford et al.,](#page-18-10) [2021\)](#page-18-10), generative image captioning [\(Hossain et al.,](#page-15-9) [2018\)](#page-15-9), image-text pair classification [\(Muennighoff,](#page-17-14) [2020;](#page-17-14) [Kiela et al.,](#page-15-10) [2021\)](#page-15-10) or speech versions of every text problem [\(Kamath et al.,](#page-15-11) [2019\)](#page-15-11). It remains to be explored whether they can be as easily unified as text embedding and generation in this work.

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1505 1506 1507 1508 1509 1510 1511 Why does GRIT work? GRIT unifies embedding and generative tasks into a single model at no performance loss on either one, which may seem surprising. When the embedding dataset is MEDI2, we show that embedding performance even improves once the generative objective is added compared to an otherwise equivalent embedding-only model [\(Appendix A\)](#page-24-0). We think that our results confirm that generative language modeling and text embeddings are two sides of the same coin. Both tasks require a model to have a deep understanding of natural language and only differ in the way that understanding is expressed. Possibly, our unified model contains a small number of parameters that act as a switch to make the final representations either useful for mean pooling and subsequent **1512 1513 1514 1515** embedding tasks or primed for the language modeling head and subsequent generative tasks. We are excited about future work exploring what is happening inside of GRITLM. To support such research, we release all our work freely.

1516 1517 1518 1519 1520 1521 1522 1523 1524 1525 1526 1527 Optimizing RAG with GRITLM RAG and the caching variants we have presented in this work operate on a frozen language model. Meanwhile, there has been extensive work on optimizing a generative model specifically for interaction with a retrieval system [\(Gao et al.,](#page-14-6) [2024;](#page-14-6) [Zhu et al.,](#page-22-3) [2024;](#page-22-3) [Asai et al.,](#page-10-9) [2023a\)](#page-10-9). These works commonly optimize only the retriever [\(Shi et al.,](#page-19-10) [2023\)](#page-19-10) or only the reader [\(Borgeaud et al.,](#page-10-10) [2022;](#page-10-10) [Yasunaga et al.,](#page-21-7) [2023;](#page-21-7) [Asai et al.,](#page-10-11) [2023b;](#page-10-11) [Luo et al.,](#page-17-15) [2023\)](#page-17-15). However, recent work has shown that jointly optimizing both models leads to the best performance [\(Lin et al.,](#page-16-8) [2023\)](#page-16-8). With its state-of-the-art retrieval and generative performance, GRITLM can act as both the retriever and reader in a single model. Thus, optimizing either one also changes the parameters of the other. This has the potential to significantly simplify the joint optimization of the retriever and reader. For example, it may suffice to only use the next-token objective [\(Equation 2\)](#page-3-1) to penalize the retriever for providing irrelevant context and at the same time the reader for poor use of the given context. This is in contrast to separate models and objective functions used in [Lin et al.](#page-16-8) [\(2023\)](#page-16-8).

C ALIGNING GRITLM

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Table 6: Aligning GRITLM with KTO after GRIT. The upper table depicts embedding performance while the lower depicts generative performance.

Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	Rerank MAP		Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.	Avg.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	4		15	10		56
GRITLM 7B	79.5	50.6	87.2	60.5		57.4	83.4	30.4	66.8
GRITLM 7B KTO	79.6	50.1	87.1	60.5		57.1	83.5	30.5	66.7
GRITLM 8X7B	78.5	50.1	85.0	59.8		55.1	83.3	29.8	65.7
GRITLM 8X7B KTO	78.7	50.0	84.4	59.4		54.1	82.5	30.8	65.2
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH		TyDi QA		HumanEval	Alpaca	Avg.
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT		1 FS. GP	0 FS		0 FS, 1.0	
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1		pass@1		$\%$ Win	
GRITLM 7B	57.6	57.5	54.8	55.4		32.8		74.8	55.5
GRITLM 7B KTO	57.6	57.5	55.4	55.8		31.5		86.7	57.4
GRITLM 8X7B	66.7	61.5	70.2	58.2		53.4		84.0	65.7
GRITLM 8X7B KTO	66.8	79.5	67.1	31.4		56.8		95.3	66.2

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1548 1549 1550 1551 1552 1553 1554 1555 1556 1557 1558 1559 1560 It is common to follow the instruction finetuning stage of generative language models by an alignment tuning stage using methods like PPO [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-19-11) [2017\)](#page-19-11), DPO [\(Rafailov et al.,](#page-18-11) [2023\)](#page-18-11), or KTO [\(Ethayarajh et al.,](#page-13-1) [2024\)](#page-13-1) ("HALOs" [\(Ethayarajh et al.,](#page-13-1) [2024\)](#page-13-1)). We experiment with further finetuning GRITLM using KTO and benchmark the resulting models in [Table 6.](#page-28-1) During this KTO stage, no further embedding training is performed, thus it leads to a slight performance drop on the MTEB average (66.8 to 66.7 and 65.7 to 65.2). However, the average generative performance of the KTO-tuned models is stronger. Notably, AlpacaEval jumps by ¿10 points for both models. On the more recent Alpaca 2.0 [\(Dubois et al.,](#page-13-2) [2024\)](#page-13-2), GritLM-8x7B-KTO has a length-controlled win rate of 18.5 with an average length of 1662 (not depicted). Thus, the KTO-finetuned models may be more useful for use cases where the generative performance is more important. Future work may consider continuing the embedding training during the alignment tuning stage. It may also be possible to develop an alignment tuning method specifically for embedding performance and combine it with generative alignment via KTO.

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1566 1567 D FEW-SHOT EMBEDDING DOES NOT WORK

1568 1569 1570 1571 1572 1573 1574 1575 1576 1577 1578 1579 1580 1581 1582 1583 1584 1585 1586 For generative models it has been wellestablished that providing in-context examples ("few-shots", FS) improves performance [\(Brown et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1). However, to the best of our knowledge, there has been no work on incontext learning with embedding models. In [Ta](#page-29-3)[ble 7,](#page-29-3) we benchmark the default 0-shot format with providing a single few-shot example following the task instruction. We take the few-shot example from the respective evaluation dataset (see [§T.2](#page-53-0) for the prompts). We find that providing few-shot examples overall worsens performance. While there are small gains among PairClassification tasks (SprintDup. and TwitterURL), these are marginal and inconsistent. For the model trained on MEDI2, we even include few-shot embedding samples in the training data for around 5% of training samples. However, the model seems not to have learned to make good use of the few-shot examples.

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E RAG CACHING CPU LATENCY

Table 7: Few-shot embedding. The 12 MTEB datasets ("DS") are grouped by the 7 main MTEB tasks in the same order as in [Table 1.](#page-4-0)

Train DS (\rightarrow)		E ₅ S		MEDI2
MTEB DS (\downarrow)	0 FS	1 FS	0 FS	1 FS
Banking77	88.5	88.3	88.1	87.9
Emotion	52.8	51.0	52.5	51.9
IMDB	95.0	93.9	94.3	92.2
BiorxivS2S	39.8	39.4	37.6	37.4
SprintDup.	93.0	94.9	95.2	95.7
TwitterSem	81.1	77.9	76.8	73.9
TwitterURL	87.4	87.1	85.9	86.1
ArguAna	63.2	51.7	53.5	53.2
SCIDOCS	24.4	19.7	25.5	25.5
AskUbuntu	67.3	64.7	66.6	66.0
STS12	77.3	78.0	76.6	73.5
SummEval	30.4	29.5	29.1	31.5

1608 1609 1610 1611 1612 Figure 6: Inference latency of RAG with GRITLM 7B on CPUs. When benchmarking scaling query length (left), document length is fixed at 1, whereas query length is fixed at 1 when scaling document length (right). In addition to the query/doc lengths, the formatting and prompt take up around 40 tokens. We visualize the standard deviation across 100 runs as the shaded area. For each approach, we generate 16 tokens. See [Figure 5](#page-7-0) for GPU latency.

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1620 1621 F ADDITIONAL RAG RESULTS

1622 1623 1624 1625 1626 1627 1628 1629 1630 1631 1632 1633 1634 In [§5,](#page-6-1) we find that doc caching is the most promising caching variant out of the ones we propose. This is because (a) documents are usually significantly longer than queries, thus caching documents has the highest potential to reduce latency, (b) it maintains performance of regular RAG [\(Table 4,](#page-8-0) and (c) it even works for non-GRIT models though it requires more time to construct the cache for non-GRIT models [\(§5\)](#page-6-1). Thus we further experiment with doc caching in [Table 8](#page-30-2) to verify its performance on other datasets. Similar to Natural Questions in [Table 4,](#page-8-0) we observe that doc caching maintains performance of regular RAG (even slightly improves) for TriviaQA and MMLU despite the attention mismatch. Note that the attention mismatch problem can

Table 8: Additional doc caching results. We use the same setup as in [Table 4](#page-8-0) to benchmark doc caching on two additional datasets: TriviaQA [\(Joshi et al.,](#page-15-12) [2017\)](#page-15-12) and MMLU [\(Hendrycks et al.,](#page-14-7) [2022\)](#page-14-7).

1635 1636 1637 always be resolved by simply not using bidirectional attention for the embedding part and thereby guarantee the same performance as not using RAG, however, not using bidirectional attention comes at a slight reduction in embedding performance according to our ablation experiments [\(Appendix A\)](#page-24-0).

1638 1639 1640 1641 1642 1643 1644 1645 1646 1647 1648 1649 1650 1651 We also benchmark the BGE series of embedding models [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023\)](#page-21-2) in [Table 9](#page-30-3) for RAG. We find performance to be significantly worse than with GRITLM in [Table 4.](#page-8-0) Based on a manual inspection of samples, it appears that the embedding models commonly retrieve irrelevant passages that confuse the generative model. There may be other smaller embedding models or other generative models that may perform better, but overall we expect the RAG performance to be a function of the embedding and generative performance of the individual components (e.g. if an embedding model performs better than GRITLM, we would expect it to lead to better RAG performance; BGE generally does not perform better on embedding as shown in [Table 1\)](#page-4-0).

Table 9: Additional RAG results with BGE. We use the same setup as in [Table 4](#page-8-0) to benchmark BGE embedding models with the "Query then document" prompt. The generative model is still GRITLM 7B.

G LOSS CURVES

1672 1673 Figure 7: GRITLM 7B training loss smoothed with exponential moving average smoothing and a weight of 0.9.

Figure 8: GRITLM 8X7B training loss smoothed with exponential moving average smoothing and a weight of 0.9.

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1695 H EVALUATION

1697 For evaluating GRITLM, we select the most commonly used embedding and generative benchmarks:

1699 1700 Embedding To evaluate embedding performance we use the 7 main tasks from MTEB [\(Muen](#page-17-0)[nighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0).

1701 1702 (1) Classification (CLF): A logistic regression classifier is trained on embeddings from texts with different labels. The classifier is scored with F1.

1703 1704 (2) Clustering (Clust.): K-means clustering is performed on embeddings from different sources. The agreement of the clusters with respect to the source labels is scored with V-measure.

1705 1706 (3) Pair Classification (PairCLF): The cosine similarity of two embeddings with a binary label is computed. The optimal similarity threshold across all samples is found and scored with AP (average precision).

- **1707 1708 1709** (4) Reranking (Rerank) A query embedding and reference embeddings are compared with cosine similarity. The similarities are scored versus the ground truth ranking of the references via MAP (mean AP).
- **1710** (5) Retrieval: A query embedding and embeddings of references are compared with cosine similarity.

1711 1712 The position of the correct reference(s) in the top ten with the highest cosine similarity is scored with nDCG@10 (normalized discounted cumulative gain).

1713 1714 (6) STS: The cosine similarity of two embeddings is compared with a ground truth continuous score of their similarity and scored with Spearman correlation.

- **1715 1716** (7) Summarization (Summ.) Human-written and machine-written summaries of the same text are embedded. The cosine similarity of the embeddings is compared to human ratings of the machine summaries and scored with **Spearman** correlation.
- **1717 1718 1719 1720** Among the tasks, Reranking, Retrieval, and Summarization are asymmetric i.e. there are two different kinds of embeddings: queries and documents. Others are symmetric i.e. there is only one kind. We use instructions for every dataset specified in [§T.1.](#page-47-1) Notably, for some models, we use different instructions for query and document embeddings when dealing with asymmetric tasks. The datasets
- **1721** within each task cover diverse domains ranging from scientific papers to casual conversations.
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      Generation For evaluating the generative performance of GRITLM, we largely follow the evalua-
      Wang et al.,2023;Ivison et al.,2023)(Gao et al.,
      2021a; Ben Allal et al., 2022).
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1726 1727 (1) Multiple-Choice Question Answering via MMLU [\(Hendrycks et al.,](#page-14-7) [2022\)](#page-14-7): Models are tasked to answer knowledge-intensive questions from different fields, such as humanities, social sciences, and hard sciences. No few-shots are provided and answers are evaluated with **exact match**.

1728 1729 1730 (2) Problem solving via GSM [\(Cobbe et al.,](#page-11-9) [2021\)](#page-11-9): Models are tasked to solve a math problem requiring multi-step reasoning. 8 few-shot (FS) examples with chain-of-thought reasoning (CoT) [\(Wei](#page-21-8) [et al.,](#page-21-8) [2023\)](#page-21-8) are provided and exact match is measured.

1731 1732 1733 (3) Multilingual Closed-book Question Answering via TyDi QA [\(Clark et al.,](#page-11-10) [2020\)](#page-11-10): Models are tasked to answer a question in one of six languages. We evaluate in the Gold Passage and no-context setting following [Anil et al.](#page-10-13) [\(2023\)](#page-10-13).

1734 1735 1736 1737 1738 (4) Code Generation via HumanEvalSynthesize [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a;](#page-17-4) [Chen et al.,](#page-11-11) [2021\)](#page-11-11): We use the HumanEvalSynthesize Python dataset [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a\)](#page-17-4), which is adapted from HumanEval [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-11) [2021\)](#page-11-11) for easy evaluation of instruction-following models. Using the instruction format is different from [Ivison et al.](#page-15-5) [\(2023\)](#page-15-5) who use HumanEval without an instruction format which is not how the model is used in practice. Following [Muennighoff et al.](#page-17-4) [\(2023a\)](#page-17-4), we score pass@1 using 20 samples and a temperature of 0.2.

1739 1740 1741 1742 (5) Boolean Expressions, Causal Judgement, etc. via BBH [\(Srivastava et al.,](#page-19-12) [2023;](#page-19-12) [Suzgun et al.,](#page-20-12) [2022\)](#page-20-12) We evaluate a variety of reasoning tasks using BIG-Bench Hard (BBH) [\(Srivastava et al.,](#page-19-12) [2023;](#page-19-12) [Suzgun et al.,](#page-20-12) [2022\)](#page-20-12). Similar to GSM8K, 3 FS CoT examples are provided and exact match is measured.

1743 1744 1745 1746 1747 1748 1749 (6) Open-ended writing, Summarization, Role-playing, etc. via AlpacaEval (Alpaca) [\(Li et al.,](#page-16-1) [2023b;](#page-16-1) [Dubois et al.,](#page-13-3) [2023\)](#page-13-3) We evaluate a variety of open-ended generation tasks via the original 1.0 version of AlpacaEval [\(Li et al.,](#page-16-1) [2023b;](#page-16-1) [Dubois et al.,](#page-13-3) [2023\)](#page-13-3). GPT-4 [\(OpenAI et al.,](#page-18-12) [2023\)](#page-18-12) is used to determine the win rate of generations compared to provided GPT-3 [\(Brown et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1) answers. We differ from [Ivison et al.](#page-15-5) [\(2023\)](#page-15-5) in that we reduce the maximum token length to 6144 from 8192. We do not use MT-Bench due to its limitations pointed out in [Appendix P.](#page-41-1) To ensure reproducibility, we use greedy evaluation throughout.

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1751 I ABLATIONS DETAILED RESULTS

1753 1754 1755 1756 We display a breakdown of the results from [Table 5](#page-25-0) in [Table 10](#page-32-1) to [Table 21.](#page-35-2) For MTEB per-dataset results, we refer to [Appendix J,](#page-37-0) the MTEB leaderboard $(\text{https://huggingface.co/}$ $(\text{https://huggingface.co/}$ $(\text{https://huggingface.co/}$ [spaces/mteb/leaderboard](https://huggingface.co/spaces/mteb/leaderboard)) and our released result files ([https://huggingface.co/](https://huggingface.co/datasets/ANONYMIZED) [datasets/ANONYMIZED](https://huggingface.co/datasets/ANONYMIZED)).

1757 1758 1759 1760 1761 Table 10: Unified models attention and pooling ablations. The sequence of Cs and Bs refers to the attention mechanism for (from left to right): Emb instruction, Emb sample, Gen instruction, Gen sample, where C=Causal, B=Bidirectional, Emb=Embedding and Gen=Generative. WM, LT and M refer to position-weighted mean, last token and mean pooling, respectively.

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1782 1783 1784 1785 Table 11: Embedding-only models attention and pooling ablations. The sequence of Cs and Bs refers to the attention mechanism for (from left to right): Emb instruction, Emb sample, where C=Causal, B=Bidirectional and Emb=Embedding. WM and M refer to position-weighted mean and mean pooling, respectively.

Task (\rightarrow)	CLF	Clust.	PairCLF	Rerank	Retrieval	STS	Summ.
Metric (\rightarrow)	Acc.	V-Meas.	AP	MAP	nDCG	Spear.	Spear.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12			4	15	10	
CC WM	77.1	44.0	83.3	57.0	43.2	79.6	29.4
CB M	76.4	45.5	83.1	56.8	45.7	80.6	30.4
BB M	77.3	46.0	83.8	58.2	46.8	81.0	32.3

1794 1795 1796 1797 1798 Table 12: Generative-only models attention ablations. The sequence of Cs and Bs refers to the attention mechanism for (from left to right): Gen instruction, Gen sample, where C=Causal and B=Bidirectional. IL=interleaved, whereby the bidirectional attention is interleaved with causal attention in multi-turn samples (bidirectional for instructions, causal for answers). This allows for faster generation in multi-turn settings as the kv-cache of the answer can be reused.

Dataset (\rightarrow) Setup (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	MMLU 0 FS EM	GSM8K 8 FS. CoT EM	BBH 3 FS. CoT EM	TyDi OA 1 FS. GP F1	HumanEval 0 FS pass@1	Alpaca 0 FS, 1.0 $\%$ Win
CC	57.5	52.0	55.4	56.6	34.5	75.4
BC	57.2	50.0	49.3	52.0	30.6	64.8
BC IL	52.6	41.0	46.9	45.4	-	-

Table 13: Base model ablations. Models are only trained for 100 steps and with other sub-optimal settings, such as the Zephyr format, that were rectified through later ablations.

1823 1824 1825 1826 1827 Table 14: **Embedding-only models embedding dataset ablations.** NNI = No Natural Instructions, corresponding to not including natural instructions in the data. II = evaluating with the Instructor- XL instructions [\(Su et al.,](#page-19-4) [2023\)](#page-19-4). Other models use our new structure with domain, intent, and unit depicted in [Figure 3.](#page-2-0) Thus, MEDI2 NNI II and MEDI2 NNI are the same model and only differ in the evaluation instruction set.

1838 1839 1840 1841 Table 15: Unified models embedding dataset ablations. The sequence of Cs and Bs refers to the attention mechanism for (from left to right): Emb instruction, Emb sample, where C=Causal, B=Bidirectional, and Emb=Embedding. WM and M refer to position-weighted mean and mean pooling, respectively. MEDI2BGE corresponds to our MEDI2 dataset with negatives coming from the BGE training dataset MTP [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-2) [2023\)](#page-21-2).

Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	Rerank MAP	Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	$\overline{4}$	15	10	1
CCCC WM MEDI	77.9	47.9	81.5	59.0	49.4	80.3	29.4
CCCC WM MEDI2	76.5	47.0	82.5	59.4	51.4	81.9	30.2
BBCC M MEDI	79.1	48.8	86.4	59.6	50.3	81.3	31.0
BBCC M MEDI2	77.0	48.7	86.0	61.0	53.6	83.0	29.1
BBCC M MEDI2BGE	77.0	48.9	86.9	61.3	53.1	82.8	29.4
BBCC M E5	79.7	49.5	86.2	59.6	55.3	83.6	29.9
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH		TyDi QA	HumanEval	Alpaca
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT		1 FS, GP 0 FS		0 FS, 1.0
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1		pass@1	$%$ Win
CCCC WM MEDI	57.5	45.0	53.1	56.0	32.3		72.9
CCCC WM MEDI2	57.1	49.0	53.3	55.3	32.3		73.6
BBCC M MEDI	57.0	46.5	54.5	55.0	30.4		73.8
BBCC M MEDI2	57.0	50.5	53.8	54.7	32.3		74.7
BBCC M MEDI2BGE	57.4	48.0	54.7	55.1	32.0		74.7
BBCC ME5	57.3	47.5	54.2	54.6	33.6		75.4

Table 16: Generative dataset ablations. EP = number of epochs.

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1865	Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH	TyDi OA	HumanEval	Alpaca	Avg.
1866	Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT	1 FS. GP	0 FS	0 FS, 1.0	
1867	Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EМ	F1	pass@1	$\%$ Win	
1868	Tülu 2 1 EP	57.5	52.0	55.4	56.6	34.5	75.4	55.2
1869	Tülu 2 2 EP	58.2	53.0	51.9	54.1	37.4	80.5	55.9
1870	OASST 1 EP	53.8	24.0	41.1	28.2	27.4	51.7	37.7
1871	OASST ₂ EP	52.4	17.5	45.7	29.2	19.8	61.3	37.7
1872	UltraChat	56.1	43.0	53.8	35.0	25.9	70.3	47.4

Table 17: **Embedding Head.** " \rightarrow 1024" refers to down-projecting the final hidden state with a linear layer from 4096 to 1024 dimensions only for embedding tasks.

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Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	Rerank MAP	Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.	Avg.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	4	15	10		56
MEDI2 256	76.5	47.0	82.5	59.4	51.4	81.9	30.2	63.2
MEDI24096	77.1	48.0	84.1	60.2	52.8	82.8	30.5	64.2
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH	TyDi QA		HumanEval	Alpaca	Avg.
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT	1 FS, GP		0 _{FS}	0 FS, 1.0	
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1		pass@1	$\%$ Win	
MEDI2 256	57.1	49.0	53.3	55.3		32.3	73.6	53.4
MEDI2 4096	57.7	48.0	53.2	54.5		32.0	74.3	53.3

Table 18: Embedding batch size ablations. 256 and 4096 indicate the respective embedding batch size. The generative batch size is always 256.

Table 19: Precision ablations. BF16 refers to bfloat16 mixed precision and FP32 to float32 precision.

Task (\rightarrow)	CLF	Clust.	PairCLF	Rerank	Retrieval	STS	Summ.	Avg.
Metric (\rightarrow)	Acc.	V-Meas.	AP	MAP	nDCG	Spear.	Spear.	
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	4	15	10		56
BF16	79.7	50.2	87.6	60.2	56.5	83.4	30.8	66.5
FP32	79.6	50.3	87.2	59.9	56.1	83.3	30.9	66.3
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH	TyDi QA		HumanEval	Alpaca	Avg.
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT	1 FS. GP	0 FS		0 FS, 1.0	
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1	pass@1		$\%$ Win	
BF16	58.2	51.5	52.8	55.9	37.3		74.4	55.0
FP32	55.9	52.0	49.9	53.9	31.2		71.3	52.4

Table 20: In-batch negatives ablations.

Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	Rerank MAP		Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.	Avg.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	4		15	10		56
Any dataset	79.7	49.8	85.5	59.8		54.9	83.9	30.5	66.0
Same dataset	79.5	48.9	87.4	59.0		56.2	83.0	30.5	66.0
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH		TyDi QA		HumanEval	Alpaca	Avg.
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT		1 FS, GP	0 FS		0 FS, 1.0	
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1		pass@1		$\%$ Win	
Any dataset	56.1	43.5	53.1	46.6		33.5		72.3	50.9
Same dataset	55.0	45.0	54.4	49.3		29.6		73.4	51.1

Table 21: Generative format ablations.

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Table 22: Unified models max tokens ablations. X:Y refers to "maximum tokens allowed for embedding documents during training":"maximum tokens allowed for queries and documents during embedding evaluation". The sequence of Cs and Bs refers to the attention mechanism for (from left to right): Emb instruction, Emb sample, where C=Causal, B=Bidirectional, and Emb=Embedding.

Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	Rerank MAP	Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3	4	15	10	\mathbf{I}
MEDI 2048:512	77.9	47.9	81.5	59.0	49.4	80.3	29.4
MEDI 2048:4096	77.9	47.9	81.5	59.0	49.4	80.2	31.3
MEDI 4096:512	76.7	47.3	79.8	58.8	47.0	78.5	30.0
MEDI 4096:4096	76.8	47.2	79.8	58.8	46.9	78.2	29.9
MEDI2 BBCC 2048:512	77.0	48.7	86.0	61.0	53.6	83.0	29.1
MEDI2 BBCC 512:512	76.9	47.6	85.5	61.0	52.8	82.3	28.8
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K	BBH	TyDi OA		HumanEval	Alpaca
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT	3 FS, CoT	1 FS, GP	0 FS		0 FS, 1.0
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EM	F1		pass@1	$%$ Win
MEDI 2048:512/4096	57.4	45.0	53.1	56.0	32.3		72.9
MEDI 4096:512/4096	53.8	43.0	52.7	54.8	30.1		
MEDI2 BBCC 2048:512	57.0	50.5	53.8	54.7	32.3		74.7
MEDI2 BBCC 512:512	56.9	46.5	53.1	52.6	31.2		72.8

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1977 1978 1979 Table 23: Loss ablations. E.g. Mix $(32 \rightarrow 8)$ corresponds to token level loss across 32 samples and then sample level loss across 8 sub-batches for a total batch size of 256. E.g. 2.4 refers to the loss ratio of the 1st step: $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Emb}}/\mathcal{L}_{\text{Gen}}$.

Task (\rightarrow) Metric (\rightarrow)	CLF Acc.	Clust. V-Meas.	PairCLF AP	MAP	Rerank	Retrieval nDCG	STS Spear.	Summ. Spear.
Dataset # (\rightarrow)	12	11	3		4	15	10	1
E5S Token 2.4	79.5	50.1	86.5	60.0		55.6	83.2	30.3
E5S Token 6.0	79.7	50.2	87.6		60.2	56.5	83.4	30.8
E5S Mix $(32 \rightarrow 8)$ 4.1	79.4	50.5	87.2	60.5		57.4	83.4	30.4
Dataset (\rightarrow)	MMLU	GSM8K		BBH		TyDi QA	HumanEval	Alpaca
Setup (\rightarrow)	0 FS	8 FS, CoT		3 FS, CoT		1 FS. GP	0 FS	0 FS, 1.0
Metric (\rightarrow)	EM	EM	EМ		F1		pass@1	$\%$ Win
E5S Token 2.4	57.9	48.5		53.5	56.5		35.2	75.0
E5S Token 6.0	58.2	51.5		52.8	55.9		37.3	74.4
E5S Mix $(32 \rightarrow 8)$ 4.1	57.6	57.0		54.8	55.4		32.8	74.8
MEDI2 Mix $(4 \rightarrow 64)$ 11.7	57.0	48.0		53.7	55.0		35.8	67.6
MEDI2 Mix $(32 \rightarrow 8)$ 10.2	57.0	50.5		53.8	54.7		32.3	74.7

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1998 1999 J GRITLM MTEB FULL RESULTS

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Table 24: MTEB full results from [Table 1.](#page-4-0)

K REDUCING EMBEDDING TRAINING MEMORY

Figure 9: **Embedding memory ablations.** Passage corresponds to both positive and document embeddings. Loss is smoothed with exponential moving average smoothing and a weight of 0.99.

2086 2087 2088 2089 2090 2091 2092 Generative training only requires sufficient memory to perform a forward and backward pass on a single training sample of a given sequence length. Meanwhile, naive embedding training with in-batch negatives requires sufficient memory to accommodate a forward and a backward pass on 3∗bs samples. The 3 corresponds to the need for passing a triplet of a query, a positive, and a negative document [\(Equation 1\)](#page-2-2). The batch size (bs) factor corresponds to the need for forwarding all samples together as regular gradient accumulation does not work with in-batch negatives. Below we outline the strategies we employ to reduce these memory needs.

2093 2094 2095 2096 2097 2098 2099 2100 Triplet As the full triplet is only required for loss calculation [\(Equation 1\)](#page-2-2), it can be split across separate forward and backward passes. To avoid the memory requirements of gradients in PyTorch Autograd [\(Paszke et al.,](#page-18-13) [2019\)](#page-18-13), this requires two additional forward passes without gradients. Simplified code representing this procedure is depicted in [Listing 1.](#page-39-2) In our training, it was sufficient to only split the triplet into two parts: query and passages, where passages consist of both a positive and a negative document. Thus, we only incur the cost of one additional forward pass without gradients on the query. Alternatively, one could only backpropagate on a subset of the embeddings, however, we show in [Figure 9](#page-38-1) that this leads to worse performance.

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2102 2103 2104 2105 In-batch negatives There are two strategies to reduce the batch size memory requirement to that of a single batch while using nearly unlimited in-batch negatives. (1) Distributed Training: The best strategy is to distribute the training across up to bs GPUs. The representations can then be gathered across GPUs to compute the contrastive loss with in-batch negatives. (2) GradCache: If enough GPUs are not available, GradCache [\(Gao et al.,](#page-14-9) [2021b\)](#page-14-9) can be used. GradCache maintains

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                 Listing 1: Splitting of the embedding pass to save memory, simplified.
       def distributed_contrastive_loss(q, p, n):
           # Gather in-batch negatives across devices...
           # Compute contrastive loss...
       # Split triplet into three forward passes
       pos_rep = model(pos)
       with torch.no grad():
           q_rep = model(query)
           neg_{rep} = model(neq)# Only perform backward pass on positive documents
       loss = distributed_contrastive_loss(q_rep, pos_rep, neg_rep)
      loss.backward()
      pos_rep = pos_rep.detach()
       # Perform forward + backward on negatives & reuse rest
       neg_{rep} = model(neq)loss = distributed_contrastive_loss(q_rep, pos_rep, neg_rep)
       loss.backward()
       # Perform forward + backward on queries & reuse rest
       neg_rep = neg_rep.detach()
       q_rep = model(query)
       loss = distributed_contrastive_loss(q_rep, pos_rep, neg_rep)
       loss.backward()
```

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2132 2133 2134 in-batch negatives while allowing computation of gradients for each triplet at a time, thus effectively corresponding to gradient accumulation for contrastive loss. However, it comes at the cost of additional forward passes.

2135 2136 Across training runs, we make use of all three strategies (splitting, distributed training, GradCache).

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L HYPERPARAMETERS

2139 2140 2141 2142 2143 2144 2145 2146 We finetune all parameters of our models for up to 1253 steps. Our learning rate is 2e-5, we use 3% of steps for linear warm-up of the learning rate and decay it linearly to 0 over training. To save memory, we use PyTorch FSDP [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-22-2) [2023\)](#page-22-2), gradient checkpointing, BF16 mixed precision training, and strategies outlined in [Appendix K.](#page-38-0) During training, we use a sequence length of 2048 for generative samples, 256 for embedding queries, and 2048 for embedding documents unless otherwise specified. We finetune using the Adam optimizer (Kingma $\&$ Ba, [2017\)](#page-16-12) with beta1=0.9 and beta2=0.999 and no weight decay. We also use Flash-Attention 2 [\(Dao et al.,](#page-11-12) [2022;](#page-11-12) [Dao,](#page-11-13) [2023\)](#page-11-13) via PyTorch SDPA.

2147 2148 2149 2150 2151 We evaluate models using the settings put forth by the creators of MTEB [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-0) [2023c\)](#page-17-0), Tülu ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023;](#page-15-5) [Wang et al.,](#page-20-1) [2024\)](#page-20-1) and HumanEvalSynthesize [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a;](#page-17-4) [Zhuo et al.,](#page-22-4) [2024\)](#page-22-4). For MTEB, we evaluate using a maximum sequence length of 512 unless otherwise specified.

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2153 M EMBEDDING INSTRUCTION FOR GENERATIVE MODELS

2154 2155 2156 2157 2158 2159 As prior instruction-tuned models have been trained without an embedding objective, it is unclear whether one should add an instruction when evaluating them on embedding tasks. We benchmark the Mistral 7B instruct model on MTEB with and without instruction in [Table 25.](#page-40-2) We find that performance is around the same, however, adding instructions performs slightly better. Thus, we add an instruction for all instruction-tuned models when benchmarking their embedding performance.

2160 2161 2162 2163 Table 25: Benchmarking the benefit of an embedding instruction for generative instructiontuned models. When an instruction is used ("Mistral Instruct w/"), we use the default instructions from Instructor XL with the prompt template of the Mistral Instruct model. For no instruction ("Mistral Instruct w/o"), the procedure is the same as for the base model ("Mistral")

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N HUMANEVAL FORMAT Table 26: HumanEvalSynthesize with different formats using Tülu 2 7B.

2174 2175 2176 2177 2178 2179 In Tülu 2 ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5), models are evaluated on HumanEval [\(Chen et al.,](#page-11-11) [2021\)](#page-11-11) without the model's chat format. As this does not reflect the intended usage of the models, we instead use the appropriate chat format for evaluating HumanEval. To do so, we use the instructions and evaluation procedure from HumanEval-

2180 2181 2182 2183 Synthesize [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-4) [2023a\)](#page-17-4). In [Table 26](#page-40-3) we benchmark the impact this has on performance for the Tülu 2 7B model ([Ivison et al.,](#page-15-5) [2023\)](#page-15-5). We find that the performance is around equivalent and thus use the chat format for all evaluations of chat models. For non-chat models, we use the original HumanEval continuation format as proposed by [Chen et al.](#page-11-11) [\(2021\)](#page-11-11)

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O EMBEDDING IN FP32 VS BF16

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2187 2188 2189 We perform all training and evaluations in BF16 (bfloat16) mixed precision to speed up computations. We verified that it performs comparably to FP32 (float32) on MTEB in [Table 27.](#page-40-4) Note that pooling and subsequent similarity computations are still in FP32.

2191 2192 2193 2194 2195 2196 Table 27: Embeddings in FP32 vs BF16. Benchmarking of the raw Mistral 7B model. "FP32" corresponds to doing all computations in float32 precision. "BF16" and "BF16 Cache" corresponds to doing most operations in bfloat16 except for operations that PyTorch auto casts to float32 (e.g. normalization), pooling and similarity computations. For "BF16 Cache", we cast the embeddings after pooling to BF16 and then back to FP32 before similarity computations. This corresponds to locally caching the embeddings in BF16 to save storage and then casting them to FP32 at inference.

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2214 P UNRELIABILITY OF MT-BENCH

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2217 2218 2219 2220 2221 2222 2223 2224 2225 2226 2227 2228 We experiment with using MT-Bench with its recommended absolute scores for our generative evaluation [\(Zheng et al.,](#page-22-5) [2023\)](#page-22-5). However, we find that as soon as we switch the LLM Evaluator from GPT-4 to GPT-4 Turbo, the scores change significantly [\(Ta](#page-41-2)[ble 28\)](#page-41-2). GPT-4 is a closed-source model with changes happening behind the scenes that users may not know about [\(Chen et al.,](#page-10-14) [2023\)](#page-10-14). Thus, if OpenAI decides to change GPT-4, all existing MT-Bench absolute scores would essentially become obsolete. The same applies if the API is retired. To alleviate this, we also experiment with using Zephyr 7B β [\(Tunstall et al.,](#page-20-11) [2023\)](#page-20-11) and Llama 2 70B Chat [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-20-3) [2023\)](#page-20-3) as eval-

Table 28: Using GPT-4 vs GPT-4 Turbo as a judge for MT-Bench. Each evaluator is provided with the same generations of the same instruction-tuned model.

2229 2230 2231 2232 2233 uators, however, we find them to often not provide any rating as they struggle to understand the prompt. While AlpacaEval [\(Dubois et al.,](#page-13-3) [2023;](#page-13-3) [Li et al.,](#page-16-1) [2023b\)](#page-16-1), which we use, shares some of these problems, its comparison-based evaluation is more stable. This is because comparing if one generation is better than another generally has an objective ground truth solution. Meanwhile, there is no objective solution as to whether an absolute score of a given generation should be 3 or 4 (MT-Bench has eleven levels from 0-10). This is up to the subjective value system of the evaluator.

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Q LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

2238 2239 2240 2241 2242 2243 Efficiency As mentioned in [§1,](#page-0-1) training using GRIT requires more compute than only embedding or only generative training as two forward and backward passes are required. As finetuning is generally cheaper than pretraining, this is not a major problem, but efficiency improvements would nonetheless be worthwhile. One potential way to improve efficiency would be to extract the embedding and generative signal from the same samples, rather than separate samples. This could halve the number of forward passes required, yet due to the different loss functions, it may not make the backward passes significantly faster.

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2246 2247 2248 2249 2250 Performance improvements While we find that GRITLM performs strongly on embedding and generative tasks $(\S3.2)$, there have been many recent models with even stronger performance in either embedding or generative tasks; yet not the combination of both. A natural future work would therefore be extending the GRIT approach to more recent models, such as the Llama-3 series of models [\(Dubey et al.,](#page-12-1) [2024\)](#page-12-1) to build stronger models that can handle both embedding and generation.

2252 2253 2254 2255 2256 Caching improvements As we outline in [§5,](#page-6-1) the caching variants with GRITLM suffer from attention mismatch problems. Further, doc caching requires a significant amount of extra storage. While storage is usually cheap, it may nonetheless be prohibitively expensive for very large indices. One promising avenue for future work is improving caching with GRITLM, such as via finetuning with caching, such that it learns to deal with the mismatch problem.

2257 2258 2259 2260 2261 2262 GRITLM Agents Future work may consider using the embedding capability to let the generative model initiate a search over an index when it deems necessary. Currently, this is often accomplished via external retrieval plugins. Such plugins are no longer necessary if the model can retrieve on its own. Teaching the model to invoke its own embedding capability likely requires additional finetuning (just like teaching it to invoke an external plugin [\(Schick et al.,](#page-19-13) [2023\)](#page-19-13)). A sample could look something like:

2263 2264 2265 2266 2267 "<|user|>\nWhat is the capital of Japan?\n<|internal|>\nI am not sure I know this. Let me produce an embedding for it and search for the answer. Retrieve answers for this query.\n<|embed|>\nWhat is the capital of Japan?\n<|output|>\nTokyo, Japan's busy capital, mixes the ultramodern and the traditional.. $\n\times$ |assistant|> $\n\times$ The capital of Japan is Tokyo. $\n\sqrt{s}$

2268 2269 2270 2271 2272 2273 Pretraining For our experiments we take an off-the-shelf pretrained language model. However, it should also be possible to use the GRIT approach to pretrain from scratch. As labeled embedding data is likely too scarce for pretraining, one could either rely on unsupervised approaches for the embedding objective, such as RetroMAE [\(Xiao et al.,](#page-21-9) [2022;](#page-21-9) [Xiao & Liu,](#page-21-10) [2022\)](#page-21-10), or use methods like data augmentation [\(Dhole et al.,](#page-11-14) [2022\)](#page-11-14), pruning [\(Xia et al.,](#page-21-11) [2023\)](#page-21-11) or multi-epoch training to deal with the data constraint [\(Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-16) [2023b;](#page-17-16) [Luukkonen et al.,](#page-17-17) [2023\)](#page-17-17).

2275 2276 2277 2278 Format Efficiency Our format in [Figure 3](#page-2-0) is inefficient, as encoding the embedding format, $\langle s \rangle$ user $|\rangle \n\times$ embed $|\rangle \n\times$ n, requires 13 tokens and encoding the generative format, $\langle s \rangle$ < | user | $\langle n \rangle$ | assistant | $\langle n \rangle$ /s>, requires 15 tokens. Using special tokens could simplify this and thus make training and inference slightly cheaper.

2279 2280 2281 2282 2283 2284 2285 2286 2287 Training efficiency: Packing and Reusing It is common to pack samples during generative instruction tuning to maximize efficiency [\(Chung et al.,](#page-11-15) [2022;](#page-11-15) [Muennighoff et al.,](#page-17-3) [2023d\)](#page-17-3). Packing embedding samples during training should also be possible by ensuring attention is only paid to each respective sample. Going even further is it possible to pack generative and embedding training data into the same sample and reuse the same sample for both tasks? This could look similar to the example provided in "GRITLM Agents" with the generative loss applied over the assistant response and the contrastive loss applied to the representation of the text following " \le |embed|>". By reusing samples it may be possible to significantly decrease the resources needed for GRIT.

R DATASET COMPOSITION

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Table 29: E5S dataset composition.

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 S DATASET SAMPLES

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2538 2539 T EVALUATION PROMPTS

2540 2541 T.1 EMBEDDING PROMPTS

2542 2543 2544 2545 [Table 31](#page-47-2) contains the prompt for each MTEB dataset when training on the E5 dataset, which are the same instructions as used in [Wang et al.](#page-20-1) [\(2024\)](#page-20-1). [Table 32](#page-49-0) contains the MTEB prompts we use when training on MEDI2, which we wrote ourselves. For models trained on MEDI, we use the instructions for Instructor-XL from [Su et al.](#page-19-4) [\(2023\)](#page-19-4).

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2548 2549 2550 Table 31: Instructions used for evaluation on the MTEB benchmark when training with the E5 dataset. "STS*" indicates we use the same instructions for all the STS tasks. For retrieval datasets, we do not use an instruction for the document and only display the query instruction.

Table 32: Instructions used for evaluation on the MTEB benchmark when training with the MEDI2 dataset. For asymmetric datasets, Q refers to instructions for queries, while D refers to document instructions.

T.2 EMBEDDING FEW-SHOT PROMPTS

Table 33: 1-shot example for the model trained on E5S. The example is appended to the respective instruction in [Table 31](#page-47-2) separated by two newlines.

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- **2969**

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Table 34: 1-shot example for the model trained on MEDI2. The example is appended to the respective instruction in [Table 32](#page-49-0) separated by two newlines.

 T.3 GENERATIVE PROMPTS

 [Figure 14](#page-57-1) until [Figure 19](#page-62-0) contain the prompts with examples used for our generative tasks.


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       Input:
       <|user|>
       Write a Python function 'has close elements(numbers: List[float], threshold: float) -\zeta bool' to solve
       the following problem: Check if in given list of numbers, are any two numbers closer to each other
       than given threshold.
       >>> has_close_elements([1.0, 2.0, 3.0], 0.5)
       False
       >>> has_close_elements([1.0, 2.8, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 2.0], 0.3)
       True
       <|assistant|>
       from typing import List
       def has_close_elements(numbers: List[float], threshold: float) -> bool:
            """ Check if in given list of numbers, are any two numbers closer to
                each other than
            given threshold.
            >>> has_close_elements([1.0, 2.0, 3.0], 0.5)
            False
            >>> has_close_elements([1.0, 2.8, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 2.0], 0.3)
            True
            """
```
Correct completion:

return False

```
for idx, elem in enumerate(numbers):
    for idx2, elem2 in enumerate(numbers):
        if idx != idx2:
            distance = abs(elem - elem2)
            if distance < threshold:
                return True
```
Figure 18: HumanEvalSynthesize prompt example.

 T.4 RAG PROMPTS

3564 3565 Embedding input (query) passed via key-value states:

3566 <s><|embed|>

3567 3568 what was the name of darth vader star destroyer

3569 Embedding input (doc) passed via key-value states and cached in the index:

3571 <|embed|>

3572 3573 3574 Star Destroyer The iconic Star Destroyer first appears in the opening scene of Star Wars, as Darth Vader's flagship, the Devastator, chases the Tantive IV above Tatooine. This appearance shows the Imperial ship's massive size in comparison to the Tantive IV.

Generative Input:

3577 \ln < $|$ user $|>$

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3575 3576

3578 3579

3581

Optionally using the prior context answer the query prior to it <|assistant|>

3580 The answer is

3582 Generation:

the Star Destroyer.

Figure 26: GRIT Query-Doc Caching example and generation by GRITLM 7B.

U HARDWARE

3591 3592 3593 3594 3595 3596 3597 3598 3599 For the training of GRITLM 7B, we used 8 nodes with 8 NVIDIA A100 80GB GPUs each for 48 hours corresponding to 3,072 GPU hours. Meanwhile for GRITLM 8X7B, we used 32 nodes with 8 NVIDIA H100 80GB GPUs each for 80 hours corresponding to 20,480 GPU hours. As we train both models for 1253 steps, this corresponds to several minutes per step. This slow training time is mainly due to (a) a large batch size per step, (b) large models and our associated strategies to make them fit into memory at the cost of speed [\(Appendix K,](#page-38-0) [Appendix L\)](#page-39-0), and (c) a cluster with slow inter-node communication. The Gen.-only and Emb.-only models in [Table 1](#page-4-0) used 72 and 1760 H100 80GB GPU hours, respectively. Adding up all ablations and evaluations, we likely used somewhere around 100,000 GPU hours.

V ARTIFACTS

Table 35: Produced artifacts that will be released upon deanonymization.

Table 36: Used artifacts released by others.